TRAINERS MANUAL

— TOWARDS SHARED LEARNING

Bay of Bengal Programme

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TRAINER'S MANUAL
'TOWARDS SHARED LEARNING'

SUPPORT PAPERS

1. Marine Fisheries in Tamil Nadu and India
2. Poverty
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5. Development, What do we mean by it !
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TOWARDS SHARED LEARNING Annexure

MARINE FISHERIES IN TAMIL NADU AND INDIA

Some Basic Information

Coastline: The Bay of Bengal coastline in Tamil Nadu is about 1,000 Kilometres long. This forms about 13% of the total coa stline of 7,514 km in India.

Coastal Districts: Of the total of 16 districts in Tamil Nadu, 8 districts are coastal districts. They are Chengalpattu, Ma dras, South Arcot, Thanjavur, Pudukkottai, Ramanathapuram, Tirunelveli and Kanyakumari. There are about 59 coastal districts in the whole of India, covering eight States (West Bengal, Orissa, Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Kerala, Karnataka, Maharashtra, and Gujarat), and Union Territories of Pondicherry, Karaikal, Mahe, Yenam, Goa, Daman, Diu.

Coastal Villages: A total of 422 marine fishing villages are there in Tamil Nadu. This forms about 17% of the total number of 2,500 marine fishing villages in India.

For the 422 villages, 375 landing centres are there in Tamil Nadu. The maximum number of fishing villages and landing centres are seen in Thanjavur district, being 87 and 84 respectively. Ramanathapuram comes next in order with 80 fishing villages and 64 landing centres, followed by Chengalpattu with 65 each. In all the other districts, the villages and landing centres are less than 60.

Population: There are 76,000 fishermen households in Tamil Nadu, with the total marine fishermen population of 3.96 lakhs. This forms about 21% of India's 3.67 lakh fishermen households and nearly 19% of the marine fishermen population of 21 lakhs in India.

The maximum number of marine fishermen households in Tamil Nadu is in Kanyakumari District (25%) followed by Thanjavur (20%), Ramanathapuram (17%) and Tirunelveli (10%). In the remaining four districts, the percentage is less than 10. The average number of fishermen families in a village in this State works out to 179, varying from 77 in Pudukkottai to 387 in Kanyakumari.

Of the total fishermen population of 3.96 lakhs in Tamil Nadu, 25% is in Kanyakumari, followed by Ramanathapuram and Thanjavur, each 18% and Tirunelveli 11%. In the remaining districts the percentages are less than 10.

Average Family Size: The average family size is 5.2, which is less than the national average of 5.7 .

Proportion of Men, Women and Children: Adult males and females comprise 32% each and 36% are children in the marine fishing villages of Tamil Nadu.

The national figures for marine fishing villages show 31% each of adult males and females and 38% of children.

Education: Out of the total fishermen population, 15% have completed primary standard, 3% secondary standard, and 1% beyond secondary standard. These figures exactly match with the all-India figures given for fishermen population regarding education.

Population according to Religion: Of the total fisherfolk population in Tamil Nadu, Hindus constitute 54%, Christians 40% and Muslims 6%.

The Christian fisherfolk are concentrated in Kanyakumari and Tirunelveli Districts, where over 95% of the fishermen are Christians, while the Muslims are concentrated in the Districts of Pudukkottai and Ramanathapuram.

Fishermen engaged in actual fishing: The total number of fishermen engaged in actual fishing in the State is 96,500 forming about 24% of the total fishermen population. Of these, the number of fishermen engaged in full-time fishing forms 91%, part-time and occasional being 4% and 5% respectively.

In the whole of India, the fishermen engaged in actual fishing form 23% of the total fishermen population. Among those engaged in actual fishing, 82% come under full-time, 11% part-time and 7% occasional categories.

Besides fishing, these people engage themselves actively in fish curing, drying, net-making, and marketing.

Fishing Crafts: There are about 46,000 fishing craft in Tamil Nadu, of which 94% are traditional and non-mechanized. Of these, 73% are Kattumarams, the rest being plank-built boats and canoes. Kattumarams form the major fishing craft in all the districts in Tamil Nadu, except in Pudukkottai and Ramanathapuram, where plank-built boats are predominant.

Kanyakumari District possesses the maximum number of non-mechanized boats (29%), the corresponding percentages for the Districts of Chengalpattu, Thanjavur and Madras being 20, 15 and 5 respectively. In all the other Districts, the percentage is less than 5 each. Of the 46,000 crafts, 2,750 are mechanized.

Ramanathapuram District possesses the maximum number of mechanized boats (38%), Thanjavur District comes next (21%), followed by Kanyakumari (19%) and South Arcot (11%). The percentage is less than 5 each in the other Districts.

Out of a total of 1.57 lakh units of fishing craft in the whole of India, of which 1.35 lakh units or 86% are traditional and non-mechanized. Of these, 55% are kattumarams and the rest are plank-built boats and canoes. Of the 1.57 lakh units of crafts, approximately 19,000 are mechanized.

Ownership of Boats: It has been estimated that about 40,000 fishermen of the 96,500 in Tamil Nadu, do not own either boats or gear, but true quantitative information regarding ownership is not available. In cases where there is no ownership by the crew, 60% of the earnings goes to the owners of the craft and the gear, and 40% of the earnings to the crew. Of the 2,750 mechanized boats, 130 are owned by outsiders. Of the approximately 19,000 mechanized boats in India, about two-thirds are owned by fishermen families mostly on share basis. The ownership of mechanized boats is not confined to fishermen alone. There are mechanized boats owned by industrialists who do not reside in the marine fishing villages. The statistics related to the ownership outside the fishing community are not readily available.

Fishing gears: There are about 6,200 trawl nets in Tamil Nadu, Ramanathapuram, accounting for the maximum (49%), followed by Thanjavur (24%), South Arcot (9%) and Kanyakumari (8%). Of the total of 1,70,320 non-mechanized gears in the State, 1,18,300 are drift/gillnets, followed by hooks and lines (22,111), traps (8,919) and boat-seines (7,220).

Drift/gillnets form the dominant gear in all the Districts, hooks and lines forming the next important gear, except in Pudukkottai. Relatively higher proportions of shore-seine are seen in the Districts of Thanjavur and Ramanathapuram. Traps constitute an important gear in Pudukkottai, Ramanathapuram and Kanyakumari Districts.

In India, there are about 14,000 trawl nets and 240 purse seines. Among other gears, drift/gillnets are of the order of about 2.16 lakhs, hooks and lines being the next major gear with 57,000 numbers. The other gears are fixed bagnets (49,900), boat seines (30,000), shore seines (19,000), scoop nets (6,000) and Rampans (190).

Out of the 2.16 lakh drift/gillnets, Tamil Nadu accounts for 55%. Of the 30,000 boat seines, Tamil Nadu accounts for 24%.

Fish Production: Marine fish production in Tamil Nadu increased from 45,000 tonnes in 1951/52 to 212,000 tonnes in 1968/69 - a 400% increase in 17 years. In the next 12 years, the production has been fluctuating from 192,000 and 224,000 tonnes. In the year 1979/80, it was 216,000 tonnes. This is 15% of the nation's marine landings. It is also 57% of the State's total fish landings from inland and marine waters.

The non-mechanized craft of the small-scale fisheries sector accounted for 70% of the total landings in 1978/79, the rest from the mechanized sector. Table 1 shows Fish landings by craft type and district, 1978/79.

Fish Consumption: About 80% of the population in Tamil Nadu consume fish. The annual per capita consumption of fish works out to 7.5 kg.

About 65% of the total marine fish landing is consumed in fresh form, 28% is salted and dried, and the remaining 7% is either frozen or reduced to fishmeal. This is mainly for export packing of prawns, lobsters, cuttle fish, etc. Tamil Nadu is India's third largest fish exporting State, accounting for about 11% of India's total value of fishery exports in 1979.

Fish Marketing: Fish is generally auctioned on the beaches by traditional auctioneers on a commission basis. They also take the responsibility for realising the sale proceeds.

About 25% of the marine fish production is marketed directly through local retailers near the landing centres. The major part is taken to private stalls or fish markets situated in the cities and towns. Table 2 shows Average Retail Prices of some marine fish species at selected centres (1979/80) Rs/Kg.

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2. Marine Small Scale Fisheries of Tamil Nadu. A General Description. Bay of Bengal Programme Development of Small-Scale Fisheries, Madras, India. December 1983.

Table 1. Fish Landings by Craft Type and District, 1978/79.

Name of District	Mech. boats (tonne)	%	Non-mech craft (tonne)	%
Madras	8,511	60.88	5,354	38.30
Chingleput	1,811	12.80	10,566	74,68
South Arcot	2,363	32.00	4,661	63.11
Thanjavur	30,835	49.21	30,027	47.91
Pudukkottai	2,077	45.45	2,486	54.55
Ramanathapuram	14,997	51.22	10,601	36.20
Tirunelveli	1,420	6.00	21,076	89.20
Kanyakumari	54	0.09	49,898	91.27
TOTAL	62,062	29.51	134,669	64.03

' POVERTY '

An Analysis of the economic condition
of the people in India.

It is now 34 years since our country was proclaimed as a Sovereign Democratic Republic. What is our progress in terms of the quality of life of the people in general? How far have we been able to realise the objective of social justice? Are some of the questions which may help us to look into the economic progress of our nation as a whole. Efforts are made in this paper to present an idea about the condition of life of the people in general and the direction of economic progress in the country.

The first and foremost thing that strikes anyone thinking about economic condition of the people, is the census figures related to the people who live below the poverty line. It is revealed by the census that more than 50 per cent in the rural areas are living below the poverty line. To think of the percentage in actual numbers, it is more than 340 million people who are below the poverty line.

Can we really depict the condition of these people? It is doubtful. It is very difficult to describe these people in terms of their feelings, hopes, aspirations, anger, hatred, desires, etc. etc. At the most, what is possible is to present some of the national statistics on some of the important aspects of life of the people. This can help us feel the magnitude of the problems, which may be part of our own experience in day-to-day life.

Consumer Expenditure and Economic Condition:

The economic condition of the people could be studies by the amount of money they could spend on their necessities. This is known as the consumer expenditure. In 1960-61, consumer expenditure was Rs276 per year. This is equal to 75 paise per day. This is an average estimate. Lakhs and lakhs of people are not in a position even to spend that much.

Consumer Expenditure Distribution among the lower strata

Lowest	6.3%	27 paise
	11.95%	37 paise
	9.88%	43 paise
	9.82%	50 paise

(Source 1, p.4)

About 38% of the people are in a position to spend 27 to 50 paise per day. Fifty paise per day means Rs 15 per month.

Food requirements and Economic condition:

The economic condition of the people could also be studied by the amount of food required per head. The Government of India has calculated the minimum requirements of food per person to carry out

the normal routine work. The calories required are 2,250 given by:

495 grams of cereals
85 grams of pulses
115 grams of milk
45 grams of sugar
35 grams of oil

This is minimal. In 1960-61, the cost of such food was estimated to be Rs 18 to Rs 20 per month. In 1974-75, the same amount of food cost Rs 35 to Rs 40. In 1978, it was Rs 53 per head per month, and in 1982, this was Rs 80 per head per month. Those who do not get this minimum food are considered to be below the poverty line. One half of the population are not getting this minimum. In this calculation, other basic needs of clothing and shelter are not taken into account!! (Source 2, p.53)

Employment Position:

In 1971, the number of people in India who were of working age, was about 180 million, or 33% of the total population. Of these, 9 million were reported to be without any work and another 10 million worked less than 14 hours a week, remaining virtually unemployed. In 1979, the work force consisted of 264 million men and women. Only 24 million of these are in the organised sector. (Source 2, p.69)

In the rural area, the number of landless workers has increased by 200 lakhs in 14 years, at the rate of nearly 15 lakhs per year. One in every 20 agricultural workers in India is a bonded labourer. 80% of these bonded labourers are below 40 years of age, 53.6% are below 30, and 21% are below 20 years of age. 80% of the bonded labourers belong to the Scheduled Caste. If the figures are looked at from the point of view of the loans that have made them bonded labourers, it is found that 45.7% incur debts for meeting daily needs and 33.6% for festivals and ceremonies. Of these, 41.3% take loans of less than Rs 300, while 23.1% take from Rs 300 to Rs 700, and 15% need loans exceeding Rs 1,100/-. 11.6% of them pay interest higher than 40% per annum, 15% pay interest ranging from 25 to 40%, while 45% do not pay any interest and live entirely at the mercy of the masters. (Source 2, pp.69-70).

The Rural Labour Enquiry has shown that between 1964-65 and 1974-75, the number of days for which employment was available for rural labourers declined by 10% for men, 7.5% for women and 5% for children. The data on average earnings when corrected for inflation, also show a decline. (Source 3, p.9).

The rates of unemployment by daily status show an average of 8.2%, which in terms of absolute numbers means that on a typical day, about 21 million people are seeking and are available for work, but unable to find it. (Source 3, p.9).

India has the largest child labour force in the world. They number over 30 million. (Source 2, p.70).

Distribution of Assets

80% of the Indian population are in the rural areas. According to the all-India Debt and Investment Survey, the distribution of assets in rural areas was as follows:

Sl. No.	Percentage share in assets		1961	1971
1	Lowest	10%	0.1	0.1
2	Lower	30%	2.5	2.0
3	Top	30%	79.0	81.0
4	Top	10%	51.4	51.0

These figures bring out very low level of asset holdings of the poorest 30% in rural areas. They also show that there has not been any major change in the structure of asset ownership in rural areas during the sixties. In fact, if 'poor' householders are defined as those with less than Rs 1000 of assets in 1961, or to allow for inflation, Rs 2,500 in 1971, the percentage of such households increased from 30% in 1961 to 35% in 1971. The bulk of the assets of these 'poor' households consists only of their huts, some household goods and some livestock. (Source 3, p.8).

The principal productive asset in rural areas is land. The distribution of land is given in the following table:

Number of acres owned	Percentage of rural families	Percentage of land
0 acres	6.0%	0%
0 - 5.0 acres	48.0%	6%
2.5 - 5.0 acres	16.0%	11%
5 - 10 acres	16.0%	20%
10 - 25 acres	10.0%	30%
25 - 100 acres	4.0%	33%
	100%	100%

It is evident from these figures that:

The top 5% of rural families own 40% of land

The top 10% of rural families own 56% of land

The bottom 50% of rural families own 4% of land.

According to the Land Ceiling Act, 1.151 crores of acres of land should be available for distribution among landless agricultural labourers. However, only 40.4 lakh acres have been declared surplus. The area taken over by the Government was 21 lakh acres and the area actually distributed was only 12.9 lakh acres. (Yojana, April 1, 1980). (Source 2, p.64).

Housing Conditions

The 1971 Census placed the shortage of housing units at 1.45 crore units, that is, 29 lakhs in urban areas and 1.16 crores in rural areas. In urban areas, with a population of over 50,000, roughly 50% of the people live in one-room houses. In metropolitan cities, nearly 75% of the householders have less than 10 sq.metre of space per head. The number of slum dwellers is over 3 million in Bombay, 2 million in Calcutta and 1 million in Madras. 20% to 25% of the population in big urban centres live as 'pavement dwellers'. India is building only two units per thousand per year in the urban areas and 0.44 in the rural areas, while the UN recommendation is 10 house units per thousand per year. (Source 2, p.61).

Distribution of total income among the various strata of Society

The top 1% enjoys 10% of the total income of the country. The top 2.5% enjoys 18%. The top 10% enjoys 34% of the whole income. The lower 50% enjoys 22%. The lowest 15% gets only 4% of the total income.

Production of necessities and Luxuries

Necessities (Items for mass consumption)	% of increase	Luxuries	% of increase
Cereals	0.6	T.V. sets	44.0
Pulses	- 1.8	Refrigerators	15.8
Edible Oils	1.6	Cars	4.0
Railway passengers	2.4	Air passengers	8.5
Milk	- 0.7	Telephones	7.6

The items produced seem to cater to the needs of the top 10% more than to the needs of the bottom 50% of the population. (Source 2, p.57).

Payment of Taxes

The Government gets the revenue from the taxes levied and spends the amount on development plans. There are two kinds of taxes - direct and indirect. The direct tax is the one levied directly on the income. The indirect tax is the one levied on the things purchased and used by the people. The price of the things includes the tax. The people who

live below the poverty line also pay these taxes. The following table gives an idea of the tax collections from direct levies and indirect levies.

	1048-49	1958-59	1968-69	1977-78
Indirect (in crores)	362	817	3017	10,545
Direct (in crores)	239	336	910	3,158

The Revenue from indirect taxes is three times that of the direct taxes. The increase in the indirect taxes from 1948 to 1978 is phenomenal and comparatively the increase in the direct taxes is much less. (Source 4).

According to Dastur, when you drink a cup of tea costing 20 paise, you pay an indirect tax of 14.5 paise. (Source 2, p.57).

Labour Force and Gross Domestic Product

There are three major sectors of work that could be identified. The primary sector is agricultural sector. The secondary sector is the industrial sector and the tertiary sector is the services, transport, communication, etc. The labour force working in each of these sectors is given below:

Sector	1951	1971
Primary	72.1%	72.1%
Secondary	10.6%	11.2%
Tertiary	17.3%	16.7%

When the industrial sector grows, it generally absorbs some of the labour force from the agricultural sector. The data given above shows that the number in the labour force in the agricultural sector remained the same. The reason for this is not the reduced growth in the industrial sector. When we look at the gross domestic product, it shows clearly a growth in the industrial sector. There is a decrease in the gross domestic product in agricultural sector. However, the population of the labour force dependent on agriculture remains the same.

Composition of Gross Domestic Product

Sector	50-51	55-56	60-61	65-66	68-69	73-74	78-79
1. Agriculture & allied Sectors	58.9	57.3	54.2	45.6	46.3	45.2	41.6
2. Industrial Sector	14.9	15.9	17.7	22.0	21.2	21.6	22.5
3. Electricity, gas, water supply, transport, storage, communication services	26.2	26.8	28.1	32.2	32.5	33.2	35.9

(Source 3, p.13)

This trend could be attributed to the type of products turned out by the industries. The products of the industries are the luxury items consumed by the upper class, as brought out earlier in this paper.

Even in the agricultural sector, the 'package strategy' adopted by the Government and the consequent green revolution benefitted the small-scale farmers with irrigation resources, and the landlords in irrigated areas in Punjab and Haryana. It left the small-scale farmers without irrigation or other resources absolutely stranded. Many were forced to sell their lands to the richer landlords and worked under them as landless labourers. Soon, with the increase in tractors and other mechanised farming equipment, they became redundant and jobless, joining the vast army of unemployed landless labourers, which totals up to more than a hundred million. The rich became richer and the poor became poorer.

The paper presented some of the facts about the economic conditions in our country today. There are some basic questions related to the economic problems in the society, which are placed before the reader. All of us must try and answer these questions, probably collecting some more additional information.

1) Is it true when it is said that
   - the poor people are poor because they are lazy ?
   - the poor people cannot progress as they have large families ?
   - the poor people spend their money on arrack and cinema and hence remain poor ?

2) Is it true when it is said that the poor people are not utilising and getting the benefit of the Programmes implemented for them by the Government ?

3) What do you think of the general opinion that the nation cannot solve its problems as long as people do not work hard and they are not disciplined ?

4) What is our answer to those who say that the new industries are not coming up because of the demand for the higher wages by the labourers, which results in loss for the industrialists and this comes in the way of progress ?

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HEALTH PROBLEMS IN INDIA

(Some basic statistical information)

Malnutrition

The problem of malnutrition is widely prevalent, particularly among those below the poverty line, landless agricultural labourers, people in slum and remote tribal areas, and those who are affected by constant calamities like drought, are more vulnerable to this phenomenon. Children, pregnant women and nursing mothers are seriously affected by malnutrition, and the damage they sustain would be irreversible. Lack of employment opportunities, illiteracy, safe drinking water, health facilities, and unhealthy environments further lower the quality of life and aggravate the morbidity patterns. Inequality of incomes, weak public distribution system, insufficient clothing and housing, aggravata these conditions further.

Some of the studies show that the average energy intake is less than that of the recommended level in about 50 per cent of the population. The extent of malnutrition would be in the range of 15 to 20 per cent. People do not get the minimum amount of cereals and pulses that are necessary to meet their normal requirements. The most seriously affected group in this regard are pre-school children, especially 0-3 age group, pregnant women and nursing mothers of the lower socio-economic strata, and families belonging to landless agricultural labourers, small and marginal farmers, particularly living in the drought prone areas.

According to the data supplied by the National Institute of Nutrition in Secunderabad, in the lower income levels, 65% of children in the age group 1 to 5 suffer from moderate malnutrition, and 18% from severe mal_nutrition. Sixty million children of this group are badly nourished due to overall calorie starvation, and not only protein starvation. Large numbers of children of this group die every year, accounting for 40% of the total deaths in the country. Approximately 1,00,000 children die every month as a result of malnutrition (India Today, Jan. 16-31, 1979 p.8). Many of those who survive childhood starvation are condemned to retarded physical and mental development. Symptoms of Vitamin A deficiency, which is a predominant cause of blindness, are found among 7 to 8% of these children. Blood tests reveal that 52% of children suffer from anaemia and the associated loss of energy.

Infant mortality rates vary widely between rural and urban areas, male and female children, and across different areas and socio-economic strata. Nearly 60% of infant deaths take place at neo-natal stage. Besides causes peculiar to infancy, fevers, respiratory and digestive disorders are mainly responsible for high infant mortality. Socio-economic imbalances in the distribution of incomes, low purchasing power, mal-distribution of essential food commodities, inadequacy of calories, proteins and other micro-nutrients in average diets, limited access to medical and public health facilities, lack of knowledge about balanced nutrition, hygiene, lack of safe drinking water, and sanitation, are some of the reasons responsible for high mortality rate and morbidity patterns prevailing in the country.

Maternal and infant mortality rates are still on a higher plateau compared to advanced and some developing countries. Infant mortality rate was 146 during the fifties, 129 during 1976, and 120 in 1981. It should come down to 60 or below 60 in 2000. (In India, 120 children die by the time they are one year old, for every 1000 live births). Only 0.5% of the children are immunized against measles, one of the six main immunisable diseases of childhood.

According to 1979 figures, infants born with low birth weight is 30% in our country, a very high percentage compared to almost all the developing countries in the world. Low birth weight babies are approximately three times more likely to die in infancy. Among those who survive, low birth weight has also been shown to be associated with longer and more frequent illnesses and with mental and physical impairments. One of the main reasons is that the mother herself has been malnourished in her pregnancy.

Diarrhoea: a major cause of high IMR.

Diarrhoea is a major public health problem among infants and young children.

They are susceptible to this due to preparation of supplementary foods in unclean utensils and contaminated water.

Meaning of malnourishment: A malnourished child grows more slowly. Instead of letting the child's genetic potential determine its growth, the body begins to struggle against itself to keep growth down to a level which its food intake can sustain.

The child seems to live from one minor illness to another - always suffering from a cold or diarrhoea, or a fever. Here lies the heart of the malnutrition story. For frequent infection is both a chief cause and a chief consequence.

Infections cause malnutrition by consuming the body's energy, by reducing the body's absorption of food, by draining away nutrients through diarrhoea or vomiting, and by depressing the appetite so that the child simply does not want to eat.

If a child is malnourished, infection is both more likely and more severe; children with even moderate malnutrition are three times as likely to get diarrhoeal infections and ten times more likely to die from an infection like measles. Conversely, a child with an infection is also more likely to become malnourished.

For children who live in the poorest parts of the world, this means an average of 160 days' illness a year. Every one of those illnesses is an assault on the child's growth. If the assaults are just too frequent - and the recovery time in between is just too short - then the child dies. But those who survive do not escape unscarred.

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Mental retardation

There are over 20 million mentally retarded people in India, out of which one million are children.

Blindness

According to a survey conducted by ICMR, out of an estimated 9 million blind persons in the country, about 5 million could be cured by proper surgical interference. In addition, 45 million persons were reported to be otherwise visually impaired.

Among the major causes responsible for visual impairment and blindness, cataract accounts for 55 to 58 per cent, followed by trachoma and other eye infections 20 to 22%. The balance is due to injuries, malnutrition and other causes.

Malaria

The incidence of malaria has shown an upward trend since 1965. The positive incidence of malaria increased from 1.48 lakhs in 19 66 to 64.7 lakhs in 1976. This was due to Vector mosquitoes having developed resistance to DDT and partly to ineffective supervisory services.

Filaria

It is estimated that 23.6 crore people are exposed to the risk of filariasis with 1.4 crores having manifestation of the disease and 1.8 crores with filarial parasites in their blood. The facilities available for prevention and treatment are very inadequate.

Tuberculosis

TB continues to be killer disease number one in India. It accounts for about 5 per cent of the one crore annual deaths in the country. Today, over 80 lakhs suffer from TB. Of the 116.94 lakh persons suffering from TB in 1974 in the 15 major States in the country, only 11.22 lakhs were treated.

Leprosy

It is estimated that out of a total of 11 million leprosy patients in the world (1971), over 3.2 million were in India, and a majority in the rural areas.

Of the estimated 3.2 million leprosy patients in the country, 20 per cent are infectious and another 20 per cent suffer from various deformities. Curative and rehabilitative services for these are necessary.

Health Services

There has been a preoccupation with the promotion of curative and clinical services through city-based hospitals, which have, by and large,

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catered to certain sections of urban population. The infrastructure of sub-centres, primary health centres and rural hospitals built up in the rural areas, touches only a fraction of the rural population. The concept of health in its totality, with preventive and promotive health care services in addition to the curative, is still to be made operational. Doctors and para medicals are reluctant to serve in the rural areas. They are generally city-oriented and their training is not adequately adapted to the needs of the rural areas, particularly in the field of preventive and promotive health. The involvement of the people in solving their health problems has been almost non-existent.

According to the 1971 Census, we have 137,000 doctors,88,000 nurses and midwives, 54,000 auxiliary nurses, 32,000 health inspectors, 300,000 hospital beds, 5,195 dispensaries. These numbers are at least four times more than what they were in 1947.

About 2.7 lakh registered practitioners are practising Indian systems of medicine. In addition, 15,000 dispensaries and 240 hospitals are also functioning in the country.

The country has about 50,000 sub-centres, 5,400 primary health centres, including 340 upgraded primary health centres with 30-bedded hospitals, 106 medical colleges with an admission capacity of 11,000 per annum and about 5 lakh hospital beds (by 1980).

The doctor population ratio varies widely from 1 doctor for 8,333 in Meghalaya to 1 doctor for 1,400 in Delhi. The bed population ratio varies widely in urban and rural areas.

The medical aid is not within the reach of our poor, especially those who live in villages. The poor man has to walk miles before he can see a doctor or a poorly equipped health centre.

80% of the doctors and 97% of the hospital beds are for the urban population which represent only 20% of the total Indian population. The remaining 80% are left to manage without any medical personnel or medical aid. Besides, to add to the poor rural health predicament, out of 5,400 primary health centres, 700 are without buildings and 2,650 have no staff quarters. Out of the 39,000 sub-centres functioning, 15,000 have no buildings.

The medical personnel in India are not trained to cater to the masses, as one doctor recently confessed, "We are trained to practise abroad." We seem to produce doctors for two reasons: for export, and for supporting the pharmaceutical industry, which is mainly in the hands of the multi-nationals. Statistics explain the situation better. An estimated 20,000 doctors have left India in search of greener pastures. Currently, about 12,000 doctors are registered with employment exchanges. At a conservative estimate, taking into account the approximate Rs 95,000 spent on each doctor, the loss of investment caused by the brain drain is close to Rs 150 crores. Likewise, 12,000 unemployed doctors - again a highly conservative estimate - represent another Rs 90 crores worth of investment lying idle at any given time. Currently, about 13,000 students qualify as doctors each year.

The per capita expenditure on health incurred by the State has gone up from about Rs 1.50 in 1955-56 to about Rs 12 in 1976-77.

Water Supply and Sanitation

The available statistics relating to the status of rural and urban water supply in India present a discouraging picture, especially in the rural areas. By March 1980, of the 5.76 lakh villages in the country, about two lakh villages with a population of some 160 million were yet to be provided with potable water supply facilities. The situation in the urban areas is relatively better, but here too, particularly in the hundreds of smaller towns, water supply and sanitation arrangements are far from adequate. The statistics in fact do not portray the hardship and inconvenience that is experienced by the poor, particularly the women and children, in areas where water is scarce, inadequate, or polluted. In terms of mandays lost due to water-borne or water-related diseases which constitute nearly 80% of the public health problem of our country, the wastage is indeed colossal.

Until the end of the Fourth Five Year Plan, ie. during the period 1951-1974, the total investment made by the Central and State Governments for providing water supply and sanitation facilities was of the order of Rs 855 crores, over 65% of it in the urban areas. During this period, it was not given a high enough priority in the planning process.

38% of the urban population are provided with a sewage system, there is practically no sanitation system for the rural population of this country.

HEALTH IN THE POOR WORLD

In the game of life and death, many people in the world are playing against the odds:

- 1 in 2 never see a trained health worker
- 1 in 3 are without clean drinking water
- 1 in 4 have an inadequate diet

Every year, diarrhoea kills five million under-fives; malaria kills one million people in Africa alone. These and other killer diseases are preventable.

- Around two-thirds of under-fives in the poor world are malnourished
- 80% of the world's disease is related to lack of safe water and sanitation
- Some five million children die and another five million are disabled yearly from six common childhood diseases (measles, tetanus, whooping cough, diphtheria, poliomyelitis, and tuberculosis). Every six seconds a child dies and another is disabled from a disease which can be immunised against. Many more suffer set-backs to normal health and growth.

- Over half a million mothers die in childbirth and 10% of babies die before their first birthday
- Upto 50% of health budgets are spent on drugs
- 1,000 million cases of acute diarrhoea in under-fives each year
- 33% of people in the world are infested with hook worm
- Traditional birth attendants deliver 60% to 80% of babies in the developing world.

Discussion questions:

1) What do we mean by 'health' ?
Is it absence of disease ?

2) People have poor health because;
- they do not eat properly
- they have large family

Do you agree ?

3) Who is responsible for the health of the people in the community ?

SOURCES

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3. Desmond A D'Abreo. From Development Worker to Activist.
DEEDS, Lower Bunder, Mangalore, Karnataka 575002. p.58-61.

4. The State of the World's Children, 1984. UNICEF.

5. "The Hindu", 8 April 1984.

Annexure

STATUS OF EDUCATION IN INDIA

A network of 6.5 lakhs schools and colleges employing over 3 million teachers with an annual budget of the order of Rs 3,000 crores constitute our education system.

Primary education.

One of the directive principles of the Constitution states that: "The State shall endeavour to provide, within a period of 10 years from the commencement of this Constitution, for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of 14 years".

The Sixth Five Year Plan document states that it has not been possible so far for the system of education to achieve the goal of universal education of all children upto the age of 14 years.

The total enrollment in elementary education has increased over the years.

	1950-51	1955-56	1960-61	1965-66	1977-78
Number of pupils in Classes I to V (in lakhs)	191.5	251.7	349.9	504.7	701.3
Percentage there of total population in age group 6 - 11	42.6	52.8	62.4	76.7	82.8
Number of Primary schools	2,09,671	2,78,135	3,30,399	3,91,064	4,77,037

It is clear that nearly 20 per cent do not go to school at all. The 80 per cent who go to school do not continue attending the school. They seem to drop out. It is calculated that about 50 per cent drop out during the first standard, and 60 per cent abandon school before fifth standard. This could be seen clearly from the following figures:

	1950-51	1955-56	1960-61	1965-66	1977-78
Number of pupils in classes VI to VIII (in lakhs)	3.2	42.9	67.0	105.3	179.9
Percentage thereof to total population in age group 11 - 14 years	12.7	16.5	22.5	30.8	38.4
Number of middle schools	13,596	21,730	49,663	75,798	97,021

For every three children enrolled in primary and middle schools, one other eligible child is left behind.

The children of socially disadvantaged groups, such as the economically poor, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes, are on the periphery of the schooling system. About 38 per cent of the scheduled caste children (20 per cent of boys and 56 per cent of girls) and 56 per cent of scheduled tribes children (49% of boys and 70% of girls) are yet to receive elementary education.

It is reported that
From every 100 pupils entering Class I,
39 drop out or stagnate in Class I
11 drop out or stagnate in Class II
8 drop out or stagnate in Class III
8 drop out or stagnate in Class IV
7 drop out or stagnate in Class V
3 drop out or stagnate in Class VI
2 drop out or stagnate in Class VII
2 drop out or stagnate in Class VIII

(The Rally, August 1980)

According to an all-India survey conducted by the NCERT (National Council of Educational Research and Training), there are over 2 lakhs villages in the country which have no schools at all. The Hindi States account for half the number of such school-less villages. The conditions in rural schools are deplorable, to say the least. Either the schools are manned by one one or two teachers, or go without any teachers at all. (Cf. Deccan Herald, 17 Dec. 1981).

More than 65 per cent of the primary and middle schools are located in rural areas, but 90% of the budget for providing facilities like playing fields, sports, laboratories and libraries, goes to the urban schools.

Secondary Education

In the area of secondary education, there was expansion in the past three decades. The quality of the programme as envisaged in the national policy on Education (1968) has not been taken care of effectively. This is particularly true with reference to the integration of practical aspects in the educational programmes.

The enrollment in Secondary education over the years is shown in the following table:

	1950-51	1955-56	1960-61	1965-66	1977-78
Number of pupils in classes IX to XI/XII (in lakhs)	12.2	18.8	28.9	50.4	87.0
Percentage thereof to total population in the age group 14 - 17 years	5.3	7.4	10.6	16.2	20.2
Number of schools	7,288	10,838	17,257	27,477	44,579

Only 20 per cent of the children of the Secondary school age are in school.

Though it is said that the education is free up to Secondary school stage in a number of States, only one child out of every five children, is in school at this stage.

It is reported that these schools lack certain minimum facilities. 40 per cent of these schools do not have a pucca structure or adequate drinking water facilities.

University Education or Higher Education

While the increase in the enrollment between 1950 and 1978 at the primary school stage was over three times, over five times at the Middle School stage, over seven times at the Secondary stage and about eight times at the University stage. The following are the figures of enrollment of students at the University stage:

	1950-51	1955-56	1960-61	1965-66	1977-78
Number of students at the University stage (in lakhs)	3.6	6.3	8.9	14.9	29.7
Percentage thereof to the total population in age group 17 - 23 years	0.8	1.4	1.8	2.7	4.0
Number of Universities	27	32	45	64	105
Number of Arts, Science and Commerce colleges	542	772	1,122	1,788	3,270

A professor from the Andhra University once declared at a Conference on Education held at that University in 1978, that our education system is "planned unemployment". It has been found that, of those who appear for the SSLC, half will fail, while of those who appear for the PUC or Intermediate, only 40 per cent will pass. From those who appear for graduate degrees, again 50 per cent will fail, while finally, from those who pass the degree examination today, a large number will be without a job. Our education system has already produced 11 million educated unemployed registered in various employment exchanges in the country. This does not include those who have not registered themselves at these employment exchanges and are still looking for jobs.

The alarming rise in unemployment is revealed in the following figures:

During 1965-77, the number of unemployed graduates rose at the rate of 21 per cent every year - from 9 lakhs in 1965 to 5.6 million in 1977. The annual rate of increase in unemployment among graduates and post-graduates was 21 per cent during 1971-76 as against 16.9 per cent in

the case of matriculates, underlining the fact that in the absence of any gainful employment, matriculates drift into the Universities.

The expansion of the various faculties of the Universities bears no relationship to the needs of the economy. While the number of arts graduates increased by 13 per cent a year during the last decade, the rate of unemployment among them increased by 26 per cent. In the case of science graduates, the corresponding percentages were 12.9 and 33; for commerce graduates 16.4 and 27.4; engineering graduates 4.6 and 29; and medical graduates 12.2 and 37.

In the case of post graduates, the situation is even worse. During the fourth and fifth Plans, only five out of ten post-graduates found jobs. Though the Government spends more than Rs 25,000 to educate an engineer, 20,000 of them were looking for jobs last year. (India Today, Nov 16, 1978).

Literacy in India

The number of illiterates in India is constantly growing. An increase of 140 million in 35 years is reported. In the last decade, there has been an increase of 6 million per year. Out of the 60 million increase in the past decade, 50 million were from the lower 40 per cent. India will have 54.8 per cent of the world's illiterates in the 15-19 age group in the year 2000. Rural folk and women form the bulk of illiterates. According to 1971 Census, more than half the people, nearly 60 per cent were literate in urban areas, whereas less than one fourth of the rural population - 27.89 per cent - was literate. Education is out of reach for the poor man, especially the one working in the village fields.

The literacy and illiteracy figures in 1961 and in 1971 are given in the following table:

Age group	1961 Literates		1961 Illiterates		1971 Literates		1971 Illiterates	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
5 - 14	336.6	29.5	803.2	70.5	523.3	34.9	973.6	65.1
15 - 24	263.3	36.0	468.8	64.0	430.1	47.5	475.9	52.5
25 - 34	192.3	28.5	481.9	71.5	260.0	33.9	506.1	66.1
35 +	262.7	22.3	917.7	77.7	366.2	24.5	1126.7	75.5

Expenditure on Education

The expenditure on education increased from Rs 153 crores in the first Plan to Rs 912 crores in four years of the Fifth Plan. The proposed outlay for the Sixth Plan 1978-83 is Rs 1,955 crores.

Expenditure on Education

(Rs Crores)

	First four 5 yr plans	Fifth plan Outlay	Percent	1974 - 78 Outlay	Percent
Elementary	694.7	410	31.9	317	35
Secondary	366.6	250	19.5	156	17
University	421.0	292	22.7	205	22
Social education	56.2	18	1.4	9	1
Cultural Programmes	25.7	37	2.8	28	3
Other educational programmes	177.8	122	9.5	90	10
	1741.8	1,129	87.8	805	88
Technical Education	380.7	156	12.2	107	12
	2,122.5	1,285	100.00	912	100

The expenditure pattern reveals an emphasis on higher education where only very small percentage from the higher income groups enroll. The expenditure on primary education was comparatively low, though the policy of universalisation of primary education is emphasized. There was hardly any expenditure on Adult Education when the illiteracy rate was so high in the country.

The system of formal education caters to a small percentage of the population ignoring a vast majority. The system as it is, is not relevant to the majority of the people who live in the rural areas. It is geared to white collar jobs and tends to drive the rural population away from the land and their local situation. The massive urban migration that is going on in India is, to a large extent, created by the educational system.

Questions for discussion:

1. What do we mean by 'education ?
   Is it acquisition of a certificate to get a job ?

2. Is illiteracy the result of:
   - unwillingness on the part of the people to send their children to school or attending adult education centres themselves?
   - the type of atmosphere in the school and the type of education given ?
   - poverty of the people ?
   - inaccessibility of the present system of education to those who are illiterate or who are future illiterates ?

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COMMUNITY HEALTH CELL
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3. Who is responsible for the 'education' of the people in a village community ?

4. What, in your opinion, is releva t education ?

SOURCES:

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Government of India. Planning Commission.

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Annexure

DEVELOPMENT, WHAT DO WE MEAN BY IT ?

During the past twenty-five years that we have been speaking about development, the concept has progressed through four different phases, and a fifth phase begins to dawn at the horizon. Simplifying and schematizing matters very much, the four phases can be distinguished, and the accent on the role of voluntary agencies can be seen to have shifted.

1. Development - Growth in Income

Initially, there was heavy emphasis on the economic aspect of development, on the need of raising the per capita income, especially by the injection of foreign investment, technology and know-how in backward countries. Countries having an annual per capita income of 500 US dollars or more, were considered 'developed', those not so privileged were classed amongst the 'under-developed' ones. The advantage of this approach was its simplicity. Development was uni-dimensional, it could be measured by means of statistics. It was the hey-day of economists, econometrists and statisticians. They had the answers.

The reference point and yardstick were the developed countries of the West. They decided what development and underdevelopment meant, and did so, as can be expected, in their own image. The strategy for development was transfer of funds and technical know-how from developed to developing countries through aid-giving programmes. Aid therefore, came from outside the needy group.

Voluntary agencies had not a very important role to play during this stage. They were largely ignored. Only at times of crisis or calamity or natural disaster was aid pumped in for providing relief to the most vulnerable or disaster-struck.

2. Development - Social Progress

The economists began to find out that they did not have all the answers, and that development was far more complex than increase in per capita income. A large variety of variables measuring health, education, sanitary conditions, calorie intake, protein consumption, etc., were therefore added into the equation. This was the idea of development that roughly prevailed during the first Development Decade declared by the UN.

The reference point or yardstick remained in the developed countries.

A more important role began to be given to the voluntary agencies. During this stage of evolution of the idea of development - and many of us are still in this stage - a great effort was made to build up institutions to provide a wide range of social services to the rural poor. Many of the dispensaries, schools, and other institutions built by either Government or voluntary organisations owe their origin to this phase. And 'Thank God' for this, because otherwise, large tracts

would have remained deprived of the most essential social infrastructural facilities.

The institutional approach meant that in a way the institution becomes the point of reference. The individual in need of a service has to come to the dispensary, the block, the school, as a client, or patient. It also brings along the danger that institutions are too often measured by their size and style rather than by the quality of personnel working in them, or the services they provide to the people. There is, further, the danger of institutions becoming ends in themselves.

This approach also brings along the danger that those living at a certain distance from an institution can profit very little from it. Development thereby becomes patchy and begins to generate 'centres' of development, the so-called 'demonstration' farms, 'model' villages, 'pilot' projects, etc. on the one hand, and large tracts of untouched terrain on the other, and hence a growing disparity between the two, even at the regional or local level.

3. Development - Integration

In the above approach, development was seen primarily as something coming from outside, whether in the form of finance, capital or social benefits. By the mid-60s the failures of the First Development Decade were making it increasingly clear that unless the process started within the poor country itself, it was unlikely to start at all. The expression 'Third World' entered into the development jargon, and third world countries began to take a serious look at their internal structures, at the prodding of eminent scholars such as Gunnar Myrdal, author of Asian Drama.

The problem they shared in common was a highly unequal distribution of wealth, most being concentrated in the hands of a small minority, while the masses of the people lived in poverty and on the 'margin' of society. The chief task of development therefore came to be seen as that of re-integrating these marginal people into the existing social structures. Attempts were made to broaden the latter and thus ensure a greater flow of benefits from those who 'had' to those who 'had not'. The 20-point Economic Programme can be seen as a concrete expression of this approach to development.

Note that during this phase, the point of reference shifts to the developing countries themselves, but to their metropolitan centres, their organized sector of the economy, and the elite of the decision-makers, who themselves are fashioned according to Western standards and values. Naturally enough, these persons, inspired with best of intentions, view development of the ordinary people into their own image, and one gets planning from above.

The strategy for development reaches out from the centre or from institutions. It takes the form of projects and extension programmes, planned at the centre, started through outside initiative, financed by the centre, through services manned by development workers who come from outside the community. This does not preclude the presence of self-help elements, but lip service is usually paid to this approach.

Food-for-Work projects could be ranged under this third approach, wherein the element of self-help is already more pronounced.

The approach was politically safe, for it did not encourage the people to ask too many questions about the system itself. Development work was used as a 'confidence mechanism' to win the allegiance of the people to the existing political system and its rulers.

The role of voluntary organisations grew considerably in importance. Because of the 'missionary' zeal that animated them, the Government felt that projects meant for the most disadvantaged or remote people could be entrusted to voluntary organisations, whose personnel would work with full motivation, where Government officers would hardly go. Or again, because these volunteers had the confidence of the people, and could therefore get across to them more easily than would be the case with the former.

A frank question can perhaps be posed at this juncture: Is this not how the present Government still sees the role of voluntary agencies?

4. Development - Liberation

There were two serious flaws in the third approach. First, it presumed that the benefits of development could 'trickle down' from the top to the bottom of the social scale: that without any major changes in the existing social structure, those who "have" will be prepared to make the necessary concessions, to provide for those who "have-not". Secondly, it presupposed that the poor would gladly accept development as a gift from above.

There is now a growing awareness that real development can only start from below, from the people at the bottom. Words like 'grass-roots' and 'bare-foot' are now becoming the fashion. The first step in development must be an attempt to help the people free themselves from the various oppressive forces keeping them in a state of dependency.

In this fourth phase, one reaches the opposite of what the original idea of development started out with. Now the ordinary man at the grass-roots becomes the point of reference and the yardstick for judging whether development takes place or not. Any development measure, at whatever level it be taken, finds its justification to the extent that directly or indirectly it helps the marginal man in the third world to become more fully himself. The 'human' aspect now takes precedence over the economic and technological. Economic projects and progress are still very much relevant, but to the extent that they result from decision-making by the ordinary man in his own community, and to the extent that it brings more equality and more participation in decision-making.

In this last phase, the people are 'conscientized' about the situation in which they live, the oppression they suffer, the contradictions they experience. They are encouraged to ask questions, to get organized, to build up countervailing power (as the trade unions did earlier) and to exert pressure from below. Politically, therefore, development becomes a live wire, for amongst the questions that people are asking will inevitably be those dealing with government officials and how they

exercise their power, government structures, and the interplay of vested interests at the top that keep people in a situation of oppression.

The role of voluntary organizations becomes vital. A role emerges of awakening the poor to their state of dependency and to the possibility of themselves changing the structures that oppress them by exerting organised pressure from below. Note that such an approach does not preach revolution or physical violence, but only favours the building up of countervailing power, without which as a matter of fact, the initiatives of Government remain a dead letter. The possibility of misunderstanding between the Government and the voluntary agencies during this fourth phase is a very real one. An example of this can be seen in a country like the Philippines.

5. Development - Dialogue and the Rich learning from the Poor?

Pointers are already on the horizon to indicate that the 'development debate' has turned 360 degrees, and that in the near future, the so-called 'developed' countries will begin to discover that they can learn very much from the poor nations, in matters of total and integral development, the quality of life, the warmth of human relations, the stability of family life.

Once this fifth stage will have been reached, a real dialogue on the basis of mutual respect for each other's dignity can begin to take place. It must also be noted that such a dialogue has to take place between the 'developed' sectors and the 'marginal' people in each country as well. To be more concrete, real development is likely to take place once we, the so-called civilized, educated, and advanced elite, begin to realize that we do not have all the answers, can therefore not plan on our own what shape the development or liberation of the mass of the people should take, without very seriously consulting them. This can be done if we would be ready for a dialogue with the people, and a willingness to encourage and work for planning from below.

Adapted from Basic Issues in Development, Michael Van den Bogaert, AFPRO, 1977, pp. 4-10.

RESPECT FOR OTHER PEOPLE

If we are going to succeed, first, in establishing a relationship of trust and confidence with others, and second, in promoting change, there are certain attitudes which we need to adopt in our relationships with others.

These attitudes are important for the life - and the learning - of any group undergoing training for development work. Without these attitudes, we shall not learn much. They are also important for each of us in our visits to villages or slums, and in all our meetings with other people, whoever they are. The attitudes are also important in other aspects of our lives - in our families, at work, with our friends, and in casual encounters with others at the shop or in the bus.

The most important is an attitude of respect for other people. This attitude is based on a sense of the worth of every human being. This is a fundamental value which underlies our approach to development. We believe that without respect for others, there can be little meaningful learning or development, either in a training group, or in a community outside.

Respect implies confidence in the other person's ability to learn, and in his potential to solve his problems and to change himself in the process. In the wider context of development it implies confidence in the potential of communities and groups of people to take hold of their own lives, to solve their own problems, and to work for change and transformation in society.

By communicating respect, we help others to respect themselves. For those who are down-trodden this is important: their attitude towards themselves may be one of disrespect. Perhaps in a slum you may hear people saying things like, "We are only poor people. We can't do anything. We are helpless." If we respect them, we shall help them to respect themselves and each other, and to change these attitudes of helplessness and worthlessness. We shall be helping to give them back their dignity.

If we give time to others, listen to others, allow them to make decisions for themselves, and express warmth towards them and interest in them, we shall be showing respect.

One final point about respect. Respect for others is based ultimately on respect for oneself. Unless I respect myself, I cannot respect others. We shall often see in this course that there is a correspondence between attitudes and behaviour towards oneself and attitudes and behaviour towards others.

If you are reading this paper in a group, we invite each of you do a simple exercise at this point. Lookaround at - or think of - all the other members of the group for a couple of minutes and in silence. Think whether you have an attitude of respect towards each of them. If not, try to cultivate such an attitude.

Adapted from Poverty and Development, a programmed course, SEARCH, 1980.

FEEDBACK

'Feedback' is information given to a person (or a group or an organisation) about how he affects others. It helps him become more aware, both of his strengths and of his weaknesses. It does not tell him what he should do, but it raises questions for him. It helps him to decide whether to change his behaviour, so that he can be more effective and better able to achieve what he wants.

If feedback is given in a positive way it can be helpful. But if it is given wrongly it is not only unhelpful, but can also be destructive. Here are some guidelines for giving feedback:

DO be specific. Give examples and data. For example: "When you interrupted me just now I felt annoyed." The other person is able to make use of such information if he chooses to do so.

DON'T make general statements, such as: "I feel annoyed because you never listen to me." Unless you can give some specific examples, the receiver may not understand or believe what you are telling him.

DO describe your own feelings and reactions: For example "I felt hurt." This is what you actually know.

DON'T describe the other person's feelings or motives or intentions. For example, "You wanted to hurt me." You do not know this: it is only your guess or interpretation. Such feedback will probably be rejected.

DON'T judge the other person's actions: For example: "You were wrong to shout at me." Statements like this will only produce a defensive reaction.

DON'T make general evaluative statements about the other person's character. For example: "You are dominating and inconsiderate." The person who is told this will probably react defensively.

DO think of the needs of the other person and of what will be useful to him. Feedback should be constructive.

DON'T speak out of your own need to react or score off the other person: that is irresponsible and destructive.

DO speak only of behaviour which the other person can change. For example: his habit of interrupting. This is within his control.

DON'T speak of behaviour over which he has no control; for example his habit of stammering. To comment on that will only increase his frustration.

DO choose the right time, climate and company to give feedback. Generally it is most useful immediately after the event concerned.

DON'T give feedback long after the event, in some other situation, with some other group of people.

DO give feedback when the other person asks for it. Better still, ask him exactly what he wants to know.

DON'T give feedback if the other person has made it clear that he does not want it.

DO encourage him to check with anyone else who was present on the accuracy of the feedback. This can be done in a group. Feedback is more effective if it is received from several sources.

DO ask the receiver if he understands what you are saying even if he does not accept it.

Feedback is a way of giving help. It is a corrective mechanism for the person who wants to learn how well his behaviour matches his intentions. It is a means of increasing a person's autonomy and establishing his identity - for answering the question "Who am I?"

Adapted from various SEARCH papers

STIMULATING PARTICIPATION THROUGH QUESTIONS AND DISCUSSION

TO THE TRAINER

Almost all learning activities can be improved by the effective use of questions and discussion. The next two activities focus on the kind of questions a field worker might ask to stimulate participation, and on techniques for leading discussions. Asking questions and leading discussion are basic adult education teaching practices upon which most other teaching tools are based.

ACTIVITY A : ONE HOUR - EFFECTIVE QUESTIONING

PURPOSE

Tell the group that the purpose of this activity is to enable us to use questions to stimulate learner interest and participation.

STEPS:

1. Explain to participants that a good field worker makes her audience feel relaxed and happy to be at the group meeting. She welcomes each person, asks about her children, talks about local events while she waits for everyone to arrive.

   There are several tools that can be used to help everyone in the group to be an active participant - such as pictures, games, problem dramas - and we will be dealing with these teaching techniques later. However, almost all these techniques are based on the effective use of questions and discussions to involve the group.

   Explain that in this activity you are going to discuss how different types of questions can be used to get people to express their ideas and to participate in meetings.

   The questions a field worker asks after showing pictures or at the end of a problem drama or game are very important. They help the audience think about the important points and talk about their ideas. There are different kinds of questions, and they each have different purposes. A mix of different questions will usually lead to a good group discussion.

   Inform the group that three kinds of questions will be considered: closed questions, open questions, and redirected questions.

2. Closed question

"When should a mother start feeding her baby small amounts of soft porridge?"

Ask field workers to discuss what a closed question is and how to handle reactions to it. What are its advantages, disadvantages? When should it be used?

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TRAINER REMINDER

Be sure the points listed below about closed questions are covered in the discussion. THEY ARE IMPORTANT.

****

A closed question calls for a brief and exact reply. The advantages are that it can focus discussion on a specific point, can help the field worker check content and whether the group agrees or disagrees with the content ideas. If the audience does not know or agree with the correct answer, the field worker must plan more teaching exercises on the content. The disadvantage of a closed question is that it can limit discussion by discouraging expression of attitudes related to the topic.

Ask volunteers from the group to give you examples of closed questions.

3. Open Question

"What should a wife do about her mother-in-law's strong wish to have more grandchildren?"

Ask the group to discuss the above question. One of the trainees should lead the discussion. After a few minutes of discussion, ask field workers to consider what an open question is and how it should be used in a discussion. What are its advantages, disadvantages?

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Be certain these points about open questions are covered in the discussion and that they are understood by the group. THESE POINTS ARE IMPORTANT.

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